

The World in 1700

What did it look like? Political maps of Europe and the rest of the world reflected quite different realities then. Natural resources were still plentiful, for numbers of humans and their footprint remained small. The global population barely exceeded 680 million that year. Nearly half that number resided in two now vanished empires. The Mughal Empire, which occupied the Indian subcontinent, approached the 160-million mark. In China, the Qing Empire remained just below, with a maximum estimate of 150 million inhabitants. Europe and the Middle East lagged far behind; the Ottoman and Holy Roman empires had approximately 27 million subjects, as did the Tokugawa shogunate in Japan. The Spanish Empire counted less than 25 million, and France a little over 21. In Russia the tsar ruled over some 13.5 million subjects. The Great Joseon Kingdom of Korea had twelve million residents, and Safavid Persia ten million. These top ten suggest that a comprehensive history of the era should properly focus on the Far East. Unfortunately, the language barrier and a scarcity of sources somewhat complicates research on that topic.

By 1700 the bloody Mughal–Maratha Wars had undermined the empire's integrity. The Maratha King Rajaram died in March. His Queen Tarabai, the daughter of the Maratha commander-in-chief Hambirrao Mohite, took charge of the army and continued fighting for the next seven years. The Mughal Emperor Aurangzeb passed away in 1707. Although by this time the Mughal armies had regained their lands, their forts had been stripped bare of valuables by the exiting Marathas, who thereafter took to raiding Mughal territory in independently operating "roving bands."¹ The Mughal Empire entered a period of decline. In China, the Qing's Kangxi Emperor (1654–1722) consolidated control, maintained Manchu identity, patronized Tibetan Buddhism, and relished the role of a Confucian ruler. Han officials worked under or in parallel with Manchu officials. The dynasty also adapted the tributary system in asserting superiority over peripheral countries such as Korea and Vietnam, while extending control over Tibet, Mongolia, and Xinjiang.² The multi-ethnic Qing dynasty assembled the territorial base for modern China.

The emperor, also known by his temple name Shengzu of Qing, was the dynasty's third, becoming China's longest-reigning ruler. He suppressed the revolt of the Three Feudatories and forced the Kingdom of Tungning in Taiwan and assorted Mongol rebels in the north and northwest to submit to Qing rule. Shengzu's consolidation of power helped establish China's claim to represent the centre of the civilized world, the Empire of the Middle – a frame of mind that has survived to the present day. The wooden structure of Beijing's Forbidden City, a complex of 980 buildings with 10,000 rooms, represented that ambition. Its *Hall of Supreme Harmony* (China's largest wooden structure) rises some 30 metres above the level of the surrounding square – then the ceremonial core of imperial power.

European colonial empires had been spreading their tentacles as well. In 1640, a monopoly for the Dutch East India Company to trade with Japan consolidated Amsterdam's dominant position as a trade center, through its outpost on Dejima (an island in the bay of Nagasaki). From here the Dutch shipped goods from China and Japan, paying tribute to the Shōgun.³ The small country thus established Europe's largest merchant fleet of the 17th century. The painter Rembrandt Harmenszoon van Rijn (1606-1669) embodied the creative impetus of the Dutch Golden Age, producing a total of about 300 paintings, 300 etchings and 2,000 drawings.

While the Dutch, Spanish, Portuguese and French empires covered much overseas territory, others were just beginning to make their mark. Those included the fledgling realms of Great Britain and Prussia. Within Europe, the unity and weight of Russia, Sweden, Poland, France, Spain and Portugal stood in stark contrast to the fractured German and Italian states. Peter I, the "greatest of the Romanovs," ruled over the largest contiguous realm. The Russian tsar subdued religious opposition to his modernization efforts by refusing to replace the patriarch of the Orthodox church when he died in October 1700. This omission enabled Peter to assume leadership of the church and make it pliant to his progressive ways. Introducing a new calendar, he promoted higher education and the

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industrialization of the Russian Empire. This eagerness for change did not make him popular; a number of rebellions cropped up, all of which Peter put down with determined brutality. Will Durant commented: "His lawless cruelty exceeded the degree in which it might be excused as normal or necessary in his time and land."⁴

War interrupted the "reforms." In 1700, a triple alliance of Denmark–Norway, Saxony–Poland–Lithuania and Russia launched a threefold attack on the Swedish protectorate of Holstein-Gottorp and provinces of Livonia and Ingria, aiming to draw advantage as the Swedish Empire was unaligned and ruled by a young and inexperienced king, thus initiating the Great Northern War. However, Sweden's King Karl XII or Carolus Rex (1682-1718), who had assumed the office in 1697, turned into a formidable enemy. Leading the Swedish army against the alliance, Karl won multiple victories despite his troops' smaller size. A major victory over a more numerous Russian army at the Battle of Narva, compelled Peter to sue for peace the same year, an offer that Karl subsequently rejected.⁵ The war continued intermittently until 1721.

In 1700, the longest-ruling king of all, Louis XIV (the Sun King) had been on the French throne for nearly six decades. The grandson of Henri IV inherited the crown when he was barely five years old.⁶ Louis moved the seat of his court and government to Versailles in 1682, turning his sumptuous palace there with its extensive pleasure gardens into France's *de facto* capital.⁷ The palace's Hall of Mirrors has hosted events of great historic significance, including the proclamation of the German Empire in 1871 and the signing of the Treaty of Versailles in 1919. Wall and ceiling paintings, chandeliers and statues lined it, sparking emulation in royal courts across Europe and beyond. Artists portrayed the splendour of *Le Roi Soleil* and his realm. Russia's Peter the Great visited Versailles and subsequently had his own version built at Peterhof Palace near Saint Petersburg between 1705 and 1725. The elevation of French as the language of the upper classes originated in those days.

Louis became more conservative with age, ultimately pursuing a policy of Catholic absolutism. In October 1685, he renounced his grandfather's Edict of Nantes (which had guaranteed religious freedom), declaring Protestantism illegal with the Edict of Fontainebleau. This act had very damaging results for France. While the wars of religion did not re-ignite, intense persecution of Protestants occurred. Authorities gave Protestant ministers two weeks to leave the country, unless they converted to Catholicism. All other Protestants were ordered to stay, although many left under the cover of night, fearing renewed reprisals.⁸ The resulting brain drain did much harm.

Nevertheless, France emerged as the leading European power, regularly asserting its military strength. The kingdom took part in two major continental conflicts, each against powerful foreign alliances: the Franco-Dutch War (1672-8) and the Nine Years' War (1688-97). Some historians have called the latter the first-ever world war, with French troops fighting against a grand alliance of the Holy Roman Empire, the Dutch Republic, England, Spain, and Savoy. The North American theater of the Nine Years' War became known as King William's War.⁹ With little to justify the slaughter, the conflict consumed the lives of nearly 700,000 soldiers, ending in a draw. Under the terms of the 1697 Peace of Ryswick, France retained Alsace but returned Lorraine to its ruler, and relinquished its gains on the eastern banks of the Rhine. Louis XIV recognised his chief opponent William III as England's legitimate ruler.

Both sides viewed the peace as merely an armistice, since the battles had failed to resolve who would succeed the ailing and childless Carlos II of Spain as leader of the Spanish Empire, a question that had dominated European politics for over 30 years. Known as the bewitched (Spanish: *El Hechizado*), Carlos became the last Habsburg ruler in Madrid. The nickname referred to his mysterious illnesses and his failure to produce children, despite two marriages. His early death in November 1700 triggered a domino effect that would culminate in the Spanish War of Succession. The successor, Felipe V (1683-1746), reigned for 44 years, despite early challenges. Felipe instigated many important reforms in Spain, especially the centralization of monarchical power and the suppression of regional

privileges, as well as the restructuring of the Spanish Empire's administration on the Iberian peninsula and its overseas regions.

Some regions recovered despite the ongoing strife. By the turn of the century, German-speaking territories regained their population numbers of 1618, the year when the Thirty Years' War broke out: 20,000,000 souls. The Durants elaborated: "Magdeburg was rebuilt; Leipzig and Frankfurt-am-Main were reinvigorated by their fairs; Hamburg and Bremen emerged stronger than before."¹⁰ On the other hand, commerce and industry remained hampered by Swedish and Dutch control of "the mouths of the Oder, the Elbe, and the Rhine." Meanwhile, Hungarian patriots worked towards establishing their independence from Habsburg domination. In April 1700, Austrian authorities arrested the freedom fighter Ferenc Rákóczi and charged him with "sedition." Imprisoned near Vienna and facing a death sentence, he escaped and later led the overthrow of the Habsburg control of Hungary. The cry for freedom from tyranny began to be heard.

Beyond its Mediterranean Coast, Africa remained mostly uncolonized, albeit affected by slave abductions. Small tribes, Somali states and the Bantu peoples of Southern Africa dominated its political map. In 1670, the Bamana Empire had defeated the once mighty Mali Empire, sacking and burning its capital.¹¹ Only the Cape Colony at the continent's southern tip represented an enclave of European settlement. An expedition by the Dutch East India Company led by Jan van Riebeeck had established a trading post and naval station in 1652 at the Cape of Good Hope. Within about three decades, the Cape had become home to a large community of free citizens, former company employees who settled in the colonies after completing their service contracts.¹² In 1688 they sponsored the immigration of nearly 200 French Huguenot refugees who had fled to the Netherlands in the wake of the Edict of Fontainebleau. The European settlers gradually migrated westward and became known as the Boers. They imported thousands of slaves from the Dutch East Indies and the rest of Africa for farm labour.¹³

Slave labour also fuelled the plantation economies of South and North America. After the Spanish and Portuguese conquest of Latin America, traders shipped over 4 million enslaved Africans there across the Atlantic. The majority, roughly 3.5 million, landed in Brazil.¹⁴ Between 60 and 70% of all those who survived the journey ended up there or in the sugar colonies of the Caribbean. Only 6% arrived in what is now the United States. *Encomienda*, a forced labor system, initially dominated in the Spanish empire. It rewarded invaders with the labor of subject people. First established in the Iberian Peninsula during the Roman period, authorities revived the system following the Christian conquest of Muslim territories. *Encomienda* applied on a much larger scale during the Spanish colonization of the Americas and the Philippines. The Spanish monarchy considered all the new subject peoples their vassals. In the 16th century conquest era, the arrangement produced a monopoly on the "services" of particular groups of Indians, held in perpetuity by the grant holder, called the *encomendero*, and his descendants.

Only Bartolomé de las Casas (1484-1566), the first officially appointed "Protector of the Indians," succeeded in having the *encomienda* system replaced with *reducciones*. The latter had aborigines relocated to their own townships, modelled after Spanish settlements. Even so, slavery continued through the blacks forcibly taken from Africa. Only the aborigines of Australia and New Zealand remained unmolested until 1770. Human bondage took other forms as well, especially with serfdom. Associated with feudalism, landholders essentially ruled over their servants and farm labourers with few restrictions. Russia's system was among the most absolute, but similar conditions also prevailed in much of Western Europe.

Nonetheless, the concept of the modern citizen slowly emerged from the shadows. By 1700, the rise of early modern rationalism had begun to exert a profound influence on Western thought, following the introduction of the influential philosophical systems of René Descartes (1596-1650), a mathematician, and Baruch Spinoza (1632-77), an ethicist.¹⁵ Together with Leibniz and Newton, these geniuses provided the intellectual foundations for the Age of Reason. Descartes, Leibniz and Newton

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also contributed greatly to the emerging sciences, then known as natural philosophy. Even though all of them professed to acknowledge the supremacy of God (and some endeavoured to prove his existence), their work accelerated the secularization of society. Many of their achievements continue to resonate today. For example, Descartes' *Meditations on First Philosophy* (1641) still serves as a standard text at most university philosophy departments; the Vatican had placed it on its list of forbidden books in 1663.

Two works published in the second half of the 17th century became founding documents for the conservative (Hobbes) and liberal (Locke) political movements. In 1651, Thomas Hobbes (1588–1679) published *Leviathan or The Matter, Forme and Power of a Commonwealth Ecclesiasticall and Civil*. The work deals with the structure of society and legitimate government, and political analysts regard it as one of the earliest and most influential examples of social contract theory. Written during the English Civil War (1642–1651), it argued for a social contract and rule by an absolute sovereign. Hobbes wrote that civil war and the brute situation of a state of nature ("the war of all against all") could be avoided only through a strong, undivided government.

John Locke (1632-1704) took a different approach with *Two Treatises of Government*, first released in 1689. The first treatise attacked patriarchalism, while the second outlined Locke's ideas for a more civilized society based on natural rights and contract theory. The book has become a key foundational text of theoretical liberalism, published at the beginning of England's Glorious Revolution, which enshrined parliamentarianism in its modern form in that country. Sir Robert Walpole (1676-1745), Britain's first de facto Prime Minister, personified that development.

In November 1700, Rome's cardinals elected Giovanni Francesco Albani as Pope Clement XI, leader of the Catholic Church and ruler of the Papal States. He became a patron of the arts and sciences, as well as a great benefactor of the Vatican Library. Clement authorized expeditions which succeeded in rediscovering various ancient Christian writings and authorized excavations of the Roman catacombs.¹⁶ Nonetheless, the Vatican severely punished perceived transgressions from church dogma. Accused of heretical Quietism, Jeanne-Marie Bouvier de la Motte-Guyon, commonly known as Madame Guyon, languished in jail after publishing the book *A Short and Very Easy Method of Prayer*, hardly an atheistic or revolutionary tract.

The work of emerging scientists, those proficient in "natural philosophy," advanced society more than any war or religious dogma could. Particularly two men catapulted the state of human knowledge into modernity: Isaac Newton (1643-1727) and Gottfried Leibniz (1646-1716). In July 1700, authorities named the latter president of the newly established Prussian Academy of Sciences. Newton's pioneering work *Philosophiæ Naturalis Principia Mathematica* (Mathematical Principles of Natural Philosophy), first published in 1687, established classical mechanics. In the *Principia* he formulated the laws of motion and universal gravitation that became the basis of the mechanistic worldview. Newton's paradigms dominated scientific thinking until 1905, when Einstein's theories inaugurated the atomic age. Newton used his mathematical description of gravity to derive Kepler's laws of planetary motion, account for tides, the trajectories of comets, the precession of the equinoxes and other phenomena, eradicating doubt about the solar system's heliocentricity. He demonstrated that the same principles applied to the motion of objects on earth and celestial bodies.

Leibniz made important contributions to metaphysics, epistemology, logic, philosophy of religion, as well as mathematics, physics, geology, jurisprudence and history. He "anticipated notions that surfaced much later in probability theory, biology, medicine... linguistics and computer science."¹⁷ As such, many of the foundations he laid remain relevant today. For example, Leibniz "developed a binary system called dyadic, which made it possible to represent any number with zeroes and ones – the concept which was later to become the basis of computer language."¹⁸ He also designed a calculating machine, spending decades trying to perfect it, and endeavoured to invent a universal language. Yet, Leibniz fell short of his ambition to become a member of the nobility. Authorities transferred his letters

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– some 20,000 in total – and other papers to the Royal Library upon his passing.¹⁹ To date, no one has yet edited a complete version of Leibniz's writings, calculations and formulas.

Other scientists charted new paths as well. In September 1700, Edmond Halley (1656-1742) returned to England after a voyage of almost one year on HMS *Paramour*, from which he observed the Antarctic Convergence. He published his findings on terrestrial magnetism in *General Chart of the Variation of the Compass*.²⁰ From an observatory he constructed on Saint Helena in 1676–77, Halley catalogued the southern celestial hemisphere and recorded a transit of Mercury across the Sun. He realised that a similar transit of Venus could be used to determine the distances between Earth, Venus, and the Sun. Upon his return to England, he was made a fellow of the Royal Society, and with the help of King Charles II, obtained a master's degree from Oxford. Halley had encouraged and helped fund the publication of Newton's *Principia*. From observations Halley made in September 1682, he used Newton's law of universal gravitation to compute the periodicity of a major comet in his 1705 *Synopsis of the Astronomy of Comets*. It was named after him upon its predicted return in 1758 (an interval of 76 years), sixteen years after his death.

Common folk had difficulty understanding such theories, if they heard of them at all. Even the CNN network called the 18th the *Century of the Furnace*, largely glossed over the scientific breakthroughs and celebrated the engine of the industrial revolution instead. The literate, primarily among the upper classes of society, much preferred reading or listening to musical performances of the period, now referred to as the Baroque. One who captured the imagination of a large audience: Daniel Defoe (1660-1731). Much of his posthumous fame rests on the novel *Robinson Crusoe*, published in 1719. Some claim the book ranks second only to the Bible in its number of translations. The French had many popular authors. The most famous became Jean-Baptiste Poquelin, known by his stage name Molière, although he had died in 1673. The German Hans Jakob Christoffel von Grimmelshausen acquired renown with the publication of his *Simplicissimus* in 1669. The book has been described as the era's most important German prose.

Johann Sebastian Bach, the Baroque's foremost composer and performer, turned 15 in March 1700. By April he enrolled in Lüneburg's prestigious St. Michael's School. According to Wikipedia, "His two years there were critical in exposing Bach to a wider range of European culture." In addition to singing in the choir, he perfected his craft playing the school's three-manual organ and harpsichords. Bach also came into contact with sons of aristocrats who had been sent to the nearby Ritter Akademie to prepare for careers in other disciplines, foremost among them the military and administration. Such ties greatly furthered the career of the creative genius.²¹ And creative he was, with amazing versatility. Bach acquired global fame for the Brandenburg Concertos; instrumental compositions such as the Cello Suites; keyboard works like the Goldberg Variations and the Well-Tempered Clavier; organ works (the Schubler Chorales and the Toccata and Fugue in D minor); and vocal music (St Matthew Passion and the Mass in B minor).

The *Kapellmeister* had some competition in his lifetime. Georg Friedrich Händel had been born the same year as Bach. In 1701, the prolific composer Georg Philipp Telemann (1681-1767) stopped by to meet the promising younger colleague. According to him, a productive professional collaboration followed. Telemann produced some 3,600 works during his long life, including 1,750 vocal compositions, an enormous output. He demonstrated flexibility by composing according to the changing fashions of his time as well as the music of different nations. In his main creative phase, Telemann turned to the sensitive style (which can be assigned more to the rococo than to the baroque) and built a bridge to the Viennese classic. He often combined this gallant style with contrapuntal elements. Audiences around the globe are most familiar with Händel's *Water Music*, written in 1717 for boat tours on the Thames in his chosen home of London.

Other regions produced great talent as well. Born in the Republic of Venice, Antonio Vivaldi (1678-1741) joined the distinguished club of the era's outstanding composers and musicians; he played the violin. Initially trained as a priest, he composed many instrumental concertos, for the violin and a

variety of other musical instruments, as well as sacred choral works and more than 50 operas. Steady employment was secured at an orphanage with the position of music teacher. Vivaldi's best-known achievement remains a series of violin concertos known as *Le quattro Stagioni* (the Four Seasons), completed around 1720.

Across the Atlantic, a pioneering activist made an impression: William Penn (1644-1718). The influential Quaker founded the Province of Pennsylvania, an advocate of democracy and religious freedom known for his amicable relations and successful treaties with the Lenape Native Americans who had resided there before European settlement. He had not always been so diplomatic. In his twenties, he ended up imprisoned for eight months in the notorious Tower of London for blasphemy. He had written and published scathing pamphlets that criticized all religious affiliations except the Quakers, refusing to recant or retract. Penn's zeal remained undiminished, and he continued to lobby on behalf of his minority faith. He benefitted from the debts and other favours incurred by the restoration King Charles II.

In 1681, the king granted him a large piece of his North American land holdings along the North Atlantic Ocean coast as payment for what he owed Penn's late father of the same name. The territory included the present-day states of Pennsylvania and Delaware. Charles II thus made Penn the world's largest private non-royal landowner, with over 45,000 square miles or 120,000 km². Penn gained sovereign rule of the territory with all rights and privileges, except the power to declare war.²² He left England a year later, sailing up Delaware Bay and the Delaware River past earlier Swedish and Dutch riverfront colonies in what is present-day New Castle. On this occasion, the colonists pledged allegiance to Penn as their new proprietor, holding the first Pennsylvania General Assembly.²³ He turned out to be a generous and magnanimous landlord. Penn's land purchase from the Lenape included the latter party's retained right to traverse the sold lands for purposes of hunting, fishing, and gathering.²⁴ Those friendly relations would not last.

Pennsylvanians were not the first Europeans to settle in North America. Jacques Cartier had explored the Saint Lawrence in 1534, laying the foundations for the French colony *Nouvelle France*. Jamestown in present-day Virginia had been established in 1607. By the late 1600s, French expeditions established a foothold on the Mississippi River and Gulf Coast. With its first settlements, France laid claim to a vast region of North America and set out to establish a commercial empire and French nation stretching from the Gulf of Mexico to present-day Canada. In 1682, the French explorer Robert Cavellier de La Salle named the region Louisiana to honor Louis XIV. Pierre Le Moyne d'Iberville, a French-Canadian military officer founded the first permanent settlement, Fort Maurepas in 1699.²⁵

By the 18th century settlers had begun making their own laws. In June 1700, the legislature for the Province of Massachusetts Bay (the modern-day Commonwealth of Massachusetts in the United States) passed "An Act against Jesuits & Popish Priests," finding that Roman Catholic clerics attempted to incite American Indians into a rebellion against the English Crown. It all amounted to an auspicious beginning for the century of the Enlightenment. Descartes' scientific approach and Newton's universal laws had begun to manifest themselves in society and government. The work of Hobbes and Locke served to adapt the rationalist perspective to benefit rulers and administrators, despite the fact that the Catholic Church placed some of their works on its list of forbidden books. Although such advice did not make the world more peaceful, especially Locke's treatises assisted with holding the powerful accountable, gradually undermining the doctrine of the divine right to rule.

The Cromwellian revolution in England (1649-60) had already shown that kings could be overthrown by their subjects if they failed to sufficiently consider the people's interests. Rationalist and Enlightenment thinking culminated in the American and French revolutions, among others. In the East (particularly Russia and China), such thinking either did not take hold at all, or failed to effectively improve the lives of the many. Those shortcomings came at a cost, proving the proverb that "Who makes peaceful change impossible makes violent revolution inevitable."

References

- ¹ Wikipedia, *Mughal Empire*
- ² Wikipedia, Qing dynasty
- ³ Until 1854, the Dutch remained Japan's sole window to the Western world.
- ⁴ Will and Ariel Durant (1963). *The Age of Louis XIV*. New York: Simon & Schuster, p. 392
- ⁵ By 1706 the Swedish King had forced all of his foes into submission including, in that year, a devastating victory by Swedish forces under general Carl Gustav Rehnskiöld over a combined army of Saxony and Russia at the Battle of Fraustadt. Russia was now Sweden's sole remaining hostile power. Karl's invasion of Russia began with his crossing of the Vistula on 1 January 1708, and effectively ended with the Swedish defeat in the Battle of Poltava on 8 July 1709. (Wikipedia)
- ⁶ His father, Louis XIII, died at age 41.
- ⁷ A portion of it serves as a residence for the French President today.
- ⁸ Renewed persecution – including many cases of torture – caused as many as 400,000 to flee France at risk of their lives.
- ⁹ Also known as the Second Indian War, Father Beaudoin's War, Castin's War, or the First Intercolonial War in French. It would become the first of six colonial wars fought between New France and New England along with their respective Native allies, until France ceded its remaining territories in North America east of the Mississippi River in 1763. (Wikipedia)
- ¹⁰ Durant, p. 411
- ¹¹ The Bamara Empire's founder was Bitòn Coulibaly, who died in 1755.
- ¹² Robert Parthesius (2010). *Dutch Ships in Tropical Waters: The Development of the Dutch East India Company Shipping Network in Asia 1595–1660*. Amsterdam: Amsterdam University Press
- ¹³ Nigel Worden (2010). *Slavery in Dutch South Africa*. Cambridge University Press, pp. 40-43
- ¹⁴ After the gradual emancipation of most black slaves, slavery continued along the Pacific coast of South America throughout the 19th century, as Peruvian slave traders kidnapped Polynesians, primarily from the Marquesas Islands and Easter Island, and forced them to perform physical labour in mines and in the guano industry of Peru and Chile.
- ¹⁵ Blaise Pascal (1623-62) was another influential French mathematician, physicist, inventor, philosopher, and Catholic writer. The Vatican placed his most famous work, the *Pensées* (published posthumously in 1670) on its list of forbidden books.
- ¹⁶ Wikipedia
- ¹⁷ Wikipedia, *Gottfried Wilhelm Leibniz*
- ¹⁸ Leibniz Association
- ¹⁹ Leibniz Association
- ²⁰ Wikipedia
- ²¹ The Durants gushed (Louis XIV, p. 420):
The Bach family was now entering upon the musical scene in bewildering profusion. We know of some four hundred Bachs between 1550 and 1850: all musicians, sixty of them holding important posts in the musical world of their time. They formed a kind of family guild, meeting periodically at their headquarters in Eisenach, Amstadt, or Erfurt. They constitute unquestionably the most extensive and remarkable dynasty in cultural history, impressive not merely by their number, but by devotion to their art, by a typically Germanic

steadiness of purpose, and by their productivity and influence.... All the forces of nature seem to have been directed to produce and prepare Johann Sebastian Bach.

²² Wikipedia, William Penn

²³ Wikipedia

²⁴ Suzan Shown Harjo, ed. (2014). *Nation to Nation: Treaties Between the United States & American Indian Nations*. Smithsonian Institution, p. 61

²⁵ Today's Ocean Springs, Mississippi, near Biloxi.